

## 1

### Getting started

7

Introducing C++	8
Installing a compiler	10
Writing your first program	12
Compiling & running programs	14
Creating variables	16
Employing variable arrays	18
Employing vector arrays	20
Declaring constants	22
Summary	24

## 2

### Performing operations

25

Doing arithmetic	26
Assigning values	28
Comparing values	30
Assessing logic	32
Examining conditions	34
Establishing size	36
Setting precedence	38
Casting data types	40
Summary	42

## 3

### Making statements

43

Branching with if	44
Switching branches	46
Looping for	48
Looping while	50
Declaring functions	52
Passing arguments	54
Overloading functions	56
Optimizing functions	58
Summary	60

## 4

### Handling strings

61

Creating string variables	62
Getting string input	64
Solving the string problem	66
Discovering string features	68
Joining & comparing strings	70
Copying & swapping strings	72
Finding substrings	74
Replacing substrings	76
Summary	78

## 5

### Reading and writing files

79

Writing a file	80
Appending to a file	82
Reading characters & lines	84
Formatting with getline	86
Manipulating input & output	88
Predicting problems	90
Recognizing exceptions	92
Handling errors	94
Summary	96

## 6

### Pointing to data

97

Understanding data storage	98
Getting values with pointers	100
Doing pointer arithmetic	102
Passing pointers to functions	104
Making arrays of pointers	106
Referencing data	108
Passing references to functions	110
Comparing pointers & references	112
Summary	114

## 7

### Creating classes and objects

115

Encapsulating data	116
Creating an object	118
Creating multiple objects	120
Initializing class members	122
Overloading methods	124
Inheriting class properties	126

Calling base constructors	128
Overriding base methods	130
Summary	132

## 8

### Harnessing polymorphism

133

Pointing to classes	134
Calling a virtual method	136
Directing method calls	138
Providing capability classes	140
Making abstract data types	142
Building complex hierarchies	144
Isolating class structures	146
Employing isolated classes	148
Summary	150

## 9

### Processing macros

151

Exploring compilation	152
Defining substitutes	154
Defining conditions	156
Providing alternatives	158
Guarding inclusions	160
Using macro functions	162
Building strings	164
Debugging assertions	166
Summary	168

## 10

### Programming visually

169

Starting a Universal project	170
Inserting page components	172
Importing program assets	174
Designing the layout	176
Adding runtime function	178
Testing the program	180
Adjusting the interface	182
Deploying the application	184
Summary	186

# Preface

The creation of this book has provided me, Mike McGrath, a welcome opportunity to update my previous books on C++ programming with the latest techniques. All examples I have given in this book demonstrate C++ features supported by current compilers on both Windows and Linux operating systems, and in the Microsoft Visual Studio development suite, and the book's screenshots illustrate the actual results produced by compiling and executing the listed code.

## Conventions in this book

In order to clarify the code listed in the steps given in each example, I have adopted certain colorization conventions. Components of the C++ language itself are colored blue, numeric and string values are red, programmer-specified names are black, and comments are green, like this:

```
// Store then output a text string value.  
string myMessage = "Hello from C++!";  
cout << myMessage ;
```

Additionally, in order to identify each source code file described in the steps, a colored icon and file name appears in the margin alongside the steps:



main.cpp



header.h

## Grabbing the source code

For convenience I have placed source code files from the examples featured in this book into a single ZIP archive, providing versions for Windows and Linux platforms plus the Microsoft Visual Studio IDE. You can obtain the complete archive by following these easy steps:

- 1 Browse to [www.ineasysteps.com](http://www.ineasysteps.com) then navigate to [Free Resources](#) and choose the [Downloads](#) section
- 2 Find [C++ Programming in easy steps, 5th Edition](#) in the list then click on the hyperlink entitled [All Code Examples](#) to download the archive
- 3 Now, extract the archive contents to any convenient location on your computer

I sincerely hope you enjoy discovering the powerful, expressive possibilities of C++ Programming and have as much fun with it as I did in writing this book.

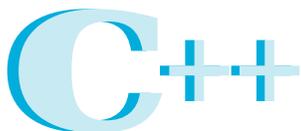
# 1

# Getting started

*Welcome to the exciting  
world of C++ programming.*

*This chapter demonstrates  
how to create a simple C++  
program and how to store  
data within a program.*

- 8** Introducing C++
- 10** Installing a compiler
- 12** Writing your first program
- 14** Compiling & running programs
- 16** Creating variables
- 18** Employing variable arrays
- 20** Employing vector arrays
- 22** Declaring constants
- 24** Summary



A powerful programming language (pronounced “see plus plus”), designed to let you express ideas.

# Introducing C++

C++ is an extension of the C programming language that was first implemented on the UNIX operating system by Dennis Ritchie way back in 1972. C is a flexible programming language that remains popular today, and is used on a large number of platforms for everything from microcontrollers to the most advanced scientific systems.

C++ was developed by Dr. Bjarne Stroustrup between 1983-1985 while working at AT&T Bell Labs in New Jersey. He added features to the original C language to produce what he called “C with classes”. These classes define programming objects with specific features that transform the procedural nature of C into the object-oriented programming language of C++.

The C programming language was so named as it succeeded an earlier programming language named “B” that had been introduced around 1970. The name “C++” displays some programmers’ humor because the programming ++ increment operator denotes that C++ is an extension of the C language.

C++, like C, is not platform-dependent, so programs can be created on any operating system. Most illustrations in this book depict output on the Windows operating system purely because it is the most widely used desktop platform. The examples can also be created on other platforms such as Linux or macOS.

## Why learn C++ programming?

The C++ language is favored by many professional programmers because it allows them to create fast, compact programs that are robust and portable.

Using a modern C++ Integrated Development Environment (IDE), such as Microsoft’s Visual Studio Community Edition, the programmer can quickly create complex applications. But to use these tools to greatest effect, the programmer must first learn quite a bit about the C++ language itself.

This book is an introduction to programming with C++, giving examples of program code and its output to demonstrate the basics of this powerful language.



Microsoft’s free Visual Studio Community Edition IDE is used in this book to demonstrate visual programming.

...cont'd

### Should I learn C first?

Opinion is divided on the question of whether it is an advantage to be familiar with C programming before moving on to C++. It would seem logical to learn the original language first in order to understand the larger extended language more readily. However, C++ is not simply a larger version of C, as the approach to object-oriented programming with C++ is markedly different to the procedural nature of C. It is, therefore, arguably better to learn C++ without previous knowledge of C to avoid confusion.

This book makes no assumption that the reader has previous knowledge of any programming language, so it is suitable for the beginner to programming in C++, whether they know C or not.

If you do feel that you would benefit from learning to program in C, before moving on to C++, we recommend you try the examples in **C Programming in easy steps** before reading this book.

### Standardization of C++

As the C++ programming language gained in popularity, it was adopted by many programmers around the world as their programming language of choice. Some of these programmers began to add their own extensions to the language, so it became necessary to agree upon a precise version of C++ that could be commonly shared internationally by all programmers.

A standard version of C++ was defined by a joint committee of the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) and the International Organization for Standardization (ISO). This version is sometimes known as ANSI C++, and is portable to any platform and to any development environment.

The examples given in this book conform to ANSI C++. Example programs run in a console window, such as the Command Prompt window on Windows systems or a shell terminal window on Linux systems, to demonstrate the mechanics of the C++ language itself. An example in the final chapter illustrates how code generated automatically by a visual development tool on the Windows platform can, once you're familiar with the C++ language, be edited to create a graphical, windowed application.



"ISO" is not an acronym but is derived from the Greek word "isos" meaning "equal" – as in "isometric".

# Installing a compiler

C++ programs are initially created as plain text files, saved with the file extension of “.cpp”. These can be written in any text editor, such as Windows’ Notepad application or the Vi editor on Linux.

In order to execute a C++ program, it must first be “compiled” into byte code that can be understood by the computer. A C++ compiler reads the text version of the program and translates it into a second file – in machine-readable, executable format.

Should the text program contain any syntax errors, these will be reported by the compiler and the executable file will not be built.

If you are using the Windows platform and have a C++ Integrated Development Environment (IDE) installed, then you will already have a C++ compiler available, as the compiler is an integral part of the visual IDE. The excellent, free Microsoft Visual C++ Express IDE provides an editor window, where the program code can be written, and buttons to compile and execute the program. Visual IDEs can, however, seem unwieldy when starting out with C++ because they always create a large number of “project” files that are used by advanced programs.

The popular GNU C++ Compiler is available free under the terms of the General Public License (GPL). It is included with most distributions of the Linux operating system. The GNU C++ Compiler is also available for Windows platforms and is used to compile examples throughout this book.

To discover if you already have the GNU C++ Compiler on your system, type `g++ -v` at a command prompt then hit Return. If it’s available, the compiler will respond with version information. If you are using the Linux platform and the GNU C++ Compiler is not available on your computer, install it from the distribution disc, download it from the GNU website, or ask your system administrator to install it.

The GNU (pronounced “guh-new”) Project was launched back in 1984 to develop a complete free Unix-like operating system. Part of GNU is “Minimalist GNU for Windows” (MinGW). MinGW includes the GNU C++ Compiler that can be used on Windows systems to create executable C++ programs. Windows users can download and install the GNU C++ Compiler by following the instructions on the opposite page.



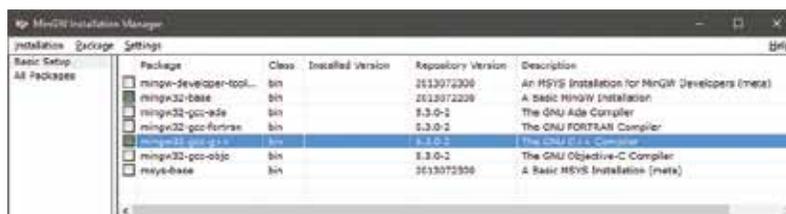
The terms and conditions of the General Public License can be found online at [gnu.org/copyleft/gpl.html](http://gnu.org/copyleft/gpl.html)

...cont'd

- 1 With an internet connection open, launch a web browser then navigate to [sourceforge.net/projects/mingw](http://sourceforge.net/projects/mingw) and click the **Download** button to get the MinGW installer
- 2 Launch the installer and accept the suggested location of **C:\MinGW** in the “Installation Manager” dialog
- 3 Choose the base and C++ compiler items, then click Installation, Apply Changes to complete the installation



The MinGW installation process may be subject to change, but current guidance can be found at [mingw.org/wiki/Getting\\_Started](http://mingw.org/wiki/Getting_Started)



The MinGW C++ Compiler is a binary executable file located at **C:\MinGW\bin**. To allow it to be accessible from any system location, this folder should now be added to the System Path:

- 4 In Windows' Control Panel, click the System icon then select the Advanced System Settings item to launch the “System Properties” dialog
- 5 In the System Properties dialog, click the Environment Variables button, select the Path system variable, then click the Edit button and add the location **C:\MinGW\bin**;
- 6 Click OK to close each dialog, then open a Command Prompt window and enter the command **c++**. If the installation is successful, the compiler should respond that you have not specified any input files for compilation:



Location addresses in the Path statement must end with a ; semi-colon.



# Writing your first program

Follow these steps, copying the code exactly as it is listed, to create a simple C++ program that will output the traditional first program greeting:



hello.cpp



Comments throughout this book are shown in green – to differentiate them from other code.

**1** Open a plain text editor, such as Windows' Notepad, then type these “preprocessor directives”

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std ;
```

**2** A few lines below the preprocessor directives, add a “comment” describing the program

```
// A C++ Program to output a greeting.
```

**3** Below the comment, add a “main function” declaration to contain the program statements

```
int main()
{
}
```

**4** Between the curly brackets (braces) of the main function, insert this output “statement”

```
cout << "Hello World!" << endl ;
```

**5** Next, insert a final “return” statement in the main function

```
return 0 ;
```

**6** Save the program to any convenient location as “hello.cpp” – the complete program should look like this:



After typing the final closing } brace of the main method, always hit Return to add a newline character – your compiler may insist that a source file should end with a newline character.

```
hello.cpp - Notepad
File Edit Format View Help

#include <iostream>
using namespace std ;

// A C++ Program to output a greeting.

int main()
{
    cout << "Hello World!" << endl ;
    return 0 ;
}
```

The separate parts of the program code on the opposite page can be examined individually to understand each part more clearly:

- **Preprocessor Directives** – these are processed by the compiler before the program code, so must always appear at the start of the page. Here, the **#include** instructs the compiler to use the standard C++ input/output library named **iostream**, specifying the library name between **< >** angled brackets. The next line is the “using directive” that allows functions in the specified namespace to be used without their namespace prefix. Functions of the **iostream** library are within the **std** namespace – so this **using** directive allows functions such as **std::cout** and **std::endl** to be simply written as **cout** and **endl**.
- **Comments** – these should be used to make the code more easily understood by others, and by yourself when revisiting the code later. In C++ programming, everything on a single line after a **//** double-slash is ignored by the compiler.
- **Main function** – this is the mandatory entry point of every C++ program. Programs may contain many functions, but they must always contain one named **main**, otherwise the compiler will not compile the program. Optionally, the parentheses after the function name may specify a comma-separated list of “argument” values to be used by that function. Following execution, the function must return a value to the operating system of the data type specified in its declaration – in this case, an **int** (integer) value.
- **Statements** – these are the actions that the program will execute when it runs. Each statement must be terminated by a semi-colon, in the same way that English language sentences must be terminated by a period (full stop). Here, the first statement calls upon the **cout** library function to output text and an **endl** carriage return. These are directed to standard output by the **<<** output stream operator. Notice that text strings in C++ must always be enclosed within double quotes. The final statement employs the C++ **return** keyword to return a zero integer value to the operating system – as required by the main function declaration. Traditionally, returning a zero value indicates that the program executed successfully.



The C++ compiler also supports multiple-line C-style comments between **/\*** and **\*/** – but these should only ever be used in C++ programming to “comment-out” sections of code when debugging.



Notice how the program code is formatted using spacing and indentation (collectively known as whitespace) to improve readability. All whitespace is ignored by the C++ compiler.

# Compiling & running programs

The C++ source code files for the examples in this book are stored in a directory created expressly for that purpose. The directory is named “MyPrograms” – its absolute address on a Windows system is **C:\MyPrograms** and on Linux it’s **/home/user/MyPrograms**. You can recreate this directory to store programs awaiting compilation:



You can see the compiler version number with the command

**c++ --version** and display all its options with **c++ --help**.

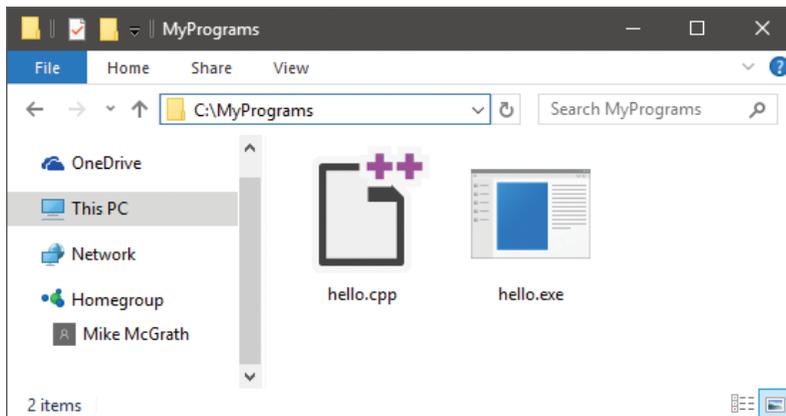
- 1 Move the “hello.cpp” program source code file, created on page 12, to the “MyPrograms” directory on your system
- 2 At a command prompt, use the “cd” command to navigate to the “MyPrograms” directory
- 3 Enter a command to attempt to compile the program **c++ hello.cpp**

When the attempt succeeds, the compiler creates an executable file alongside the original source code file. By default, the executable file is named **a.exe** on Windows systems and **a.out** on Linux. Compiling a different source code file in the same directory would now overwrite the first executable file without warning. This is obviously undesirable, so a custom name for the executable file should be specified when compiling programs, using the compiler’s **-o** option in the compile command.

- 4 Enter a command to compile the program, creating an executable file named “hello.exe” alongside the source file **c++ hello.cpp -o hello.exe**



The command **c++** is an alias for the GNU C++ Compiler – the command **g++** can also be used.

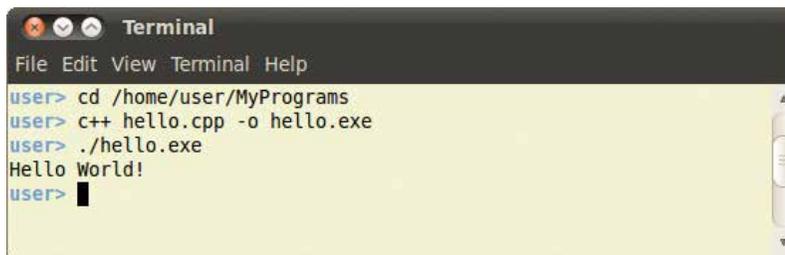
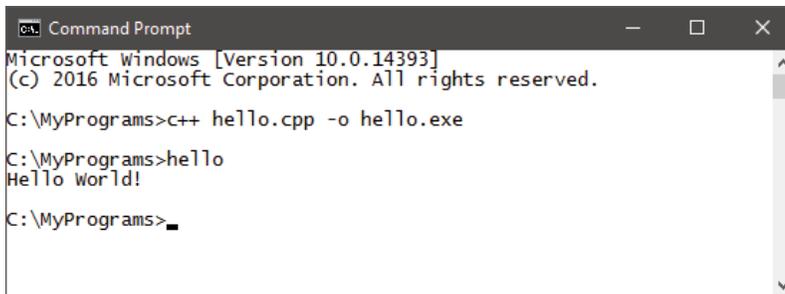


...cont'd

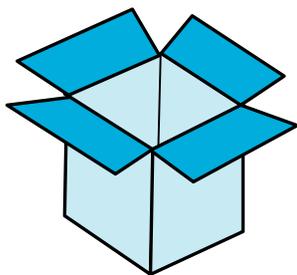


5

To run the generated executable program file in Windows, simply enter the file name at the prompt in the “MyPrograms” directory – optionally, the file extension may be omitted. In Linux, the full file name must be used, preceded by a `./` dot-slash – as Linux does not look in the current directory unless it is explicitly directed to do so:



All command line examples in this book have been compiled and tested with the latest GNU C++ Compiler available at the time of writing – they may not replicate exactly with other compilers.



# Creating variables

A “variable” is like a container in a C++ program in which a data value can be stored inside the computer’s memory. The stored value can be referenced using the variable’s name.

The programmer can choose any name for a variable, providing it adheres to the C++ naming conventions – a chosen name may only contain letters, digits, and the underscore character, but cannot begin with a digit. Also, the C++ keywords, listed on the inside cover of this book must be avoided. It’s good practice to choose meaningful names to make the code more comprehensible.

To create a new variable in a program it must be “declared”, specifying the type of data it may contain and its chosen name. A variable declaration has this syntax:

***data-type variable-name ;***

Multiple variables of the same data type can be created in a single declaration as a comma-separated list with this syntax:

***data-type variable-name1 , variable-name2 , variable-name3 ;***

The five basic C++ data types are listed in the table below, together with a brief description and example content:

Data Type:	Description:	Example:
<b>char</b>	A single byte, capable of holding one character	<b>'A'</b>
<b>int</b>	An integer whole number	<b>100</b>
<b>float</b>	A floating-point number, correct to six decimal places	<b>0.123456</b>
<b>double</b>	A floating-point number, correct to 10 decimal places	<b>0.0123456789</b>
<b>bool</b>	A Boolean value of <b>true</b> or <b>false</b> , or numerically zero is false and any non-zero is true	<b>false</b> or <b>0</b> <b>true</b> or <b>1</b>

Variable declarations must appear before executable statements – so they will be available for reference within statements.



Names are case-sensitive in C++ – so variables named **VAR**, **Var**, and **var** are treated as three individual variables. Traditionally, C++ variable names are lowercase and seldom begin with an underscore, as some C++ libraries use that convention.



Character values of the **char** data type must always be enclosed between single quotes – not double quotes.

## ...cont'd

When a value is assigned to a variable it is said to have been “initialized”. Optionally, a variable may be initialized in its declaration. The value stored in any initialized variable can be displayed on standard output by the `cout` function, which was used on page 12 to display the “Hello World!” greeting.

1 Start a new program by specifying the C++ library classes to include, and a namespace prefix to use

```
#include <iostream>
using namespace std ;
```

2 Add a main function containing a final `return` statement

```
int main()
{
    // Program code goes here.
    return 0 ;
}
```

3 In the main function, insert statements to declare and initialize variables of various data types

```
char letter ;    letter = 'A' ;    // Declared then initialized.
int number ;    number = 100 ; // Declared then initialized.
float decimal = 7.5 ;    // Declared and initialized.
double pi = 3.14159 ;    // Declared and initialized.
bool isTrue = false ;    // Declared and initialized.
```

4 Now, insert statements to output each stored value

```
cout << "char letter: " << letter << endl ;
cout << "int number: " << number << endl ;
cout << "float decimal: " << decimal << endl ;
cout << "double pi: " << pi << endl ;
cout << "bool isTrue: " << isTrue << endl ;
```

5 Save, compile, and run the program to see the output

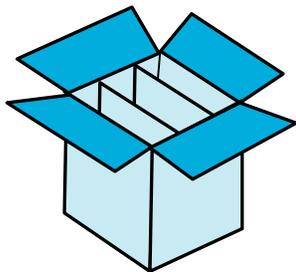


vars.cpp



Always begin Boolean variable names with “is” so they are instantly recognizable as Booleans. Also, use “lowerCamelCase” for all variable names that comprise multiple words – where all except the first word begin with uppercase, like “isTrue”.

```
Command Prompt
C:\MyPrograms>c++ vars.cpp -o vars.exe
C:\MyPrograms>vars
char letter: A
int number: 100
float decimal: 7.5
double pi: 3.14159
bool isTrue: 0
C:\MyPrograms>
```



# Employing variable arrays

An array is a variable that can store multiple items of data – unlike a regular variable, which can only store one piece of data. The pieces of data are stored sequentially in array “elements” that are numbered, starting at zero. So, the first value is stored in element zero, the second value is stored in element one, and so on.

An array is declared in the same way as other variables, but additionally the size of the array must also be specified in the declaration, in square brackets following the array name. For example, the syntax to declare an array named “nums” to store six integer numbers looks like this:

```
int nums[6] ;
```

Optionally, an array can be initialized when it is declared by assigning values to each element as a comma-separated list enclosed by curly brackets (braces). For example:

```
int nums[6] = { 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 } ;
```

An individual element can be referenced using the array name followed by square brackets containing the element number. This means that **nums[1]** references the second element in the example above – not the first element, as element numbering starts at zero.

Arrays can be created for any C++ data type, but each element may only contain data of the same data type. An array of characters can be used to store a string of text if the final element contains the special **\0** null character. For example:

```
char name[5] = { 'm', 'i', 'k', 'e', '\0' } ;
```

The entire string to be referenced just by the array name. This is the principle means of working with strings in the C language, but the C++ string class, introduced in chapter four, is far simpler.

Collectively, the elements of an array are known as an “index”. Arrays can have more than one index – to represent multiple dimensions, rather than the single dimension of a regular array. Multi-dimensional arrays of three indices and more are uncommon, but two-dimensional arrays are useful to store grid-based information, such as coordinates. For example:

```
int coords[2][3] = { { 1, 2, 3 } , { 4, 5, 6 } } ;
```



Array numbering starts at zero – so the final element in an array of six elements is number five, not number six.

	[0]	[1]	[2]
[0]	1	2	3
[1]	4	5	6

...cont'd

1 Start a new program by specifying the C++ library classes to include, and a namespace prefix to use  
`#include <iostream>`  
`using namespace std ;`

2 Add a main function containing a final **return** statement  
`int main()`  
`{`  
`// Program code goes here.`  
`return 0 ;`  
`}`

3 In the main function, insert statements to declare and initialize three variable arrays  
`// Declared then initialized.`  
`float nums[3] ;`  
`nums[0] = 1.5 ; nums[1] = 2.75 ; nums[2] = 3.25 ;`  
  
`// Declared and initialized.`  
`char name[5] = { 'm', 'i', 'k', 'e', '\0' } ;`  
`int coords[2][3] = { { 1, 2, 3 } , { 4, 5, 6 } } ;`  
`}`

4 Now, insert statements to output specific element values  
`cout << "nums[0]: " << nums[0] << endl ;`  
`cout << "nums[1]: " << nums[1] << endl ;`  
`cout << "nums[2]: " << nums[2] << endl ;`  
`cout << "name[0]: " << name[0] << endl ;`  
`cout << "Text string: " << name << endl ;`  
`cout << "coords[0][2]: " << coords[0][2] << endl ;`  
`cout << "coords[1][2]: " << coords[1][2] << endl ;`

5 Save, compile, and run the program to see the output



arrays.cpp



Where possible, variable names should not be abbreviations – abbreviated names are only used in this book's examples due to space limitations.



The loop structures, introduced in Chapter Three, are often used to iterate array elements.

```
Command Prompt
C:\MyPrograms>c++ arrays.cpp -o arrays.exe

C:\MyPrograms>arrays
nums[0]: 1.5
nums[1]: 2.75
nums[2]: 3.25
name[0]: m
Text string: mike
coords[0][2]: 3
coords[1][2]: 6

C:\MyPrograms>
```

# Employing vector arrays

A vector is an alternative to a regular array, and has the advantage that its size can be changed as the program requires. Like regular arrays, vectors can be created for any data type, and their elements are also numbered starting at zero.

In order to use vectors in a program, the C++ **vector** library must be added with an **#include <vector>** preprocessor directive at the start of the program. This library contains the predefined functions in the table below, which are used to work with vectors:

Function:	Description:
<b>at( number )</b>	Gets the value contained in the specified element number
<b>back()</b>	Gets the value in the final element
<b>clear()</b>	Removes all vector elements
<b>empty()</b>	Returns true (1) if the vector is empty, or returns false (0) otherwise
<b>front()</b>	Gets the value in the first element
<b>pop_back()</b>	Removes the final element
<b>push_back( value )</b>	Adds a final element to the end of the vector, containing the specified value
<b>size()</b>	Gets the number of elements



Individual vector elements can be referenced using square brackets as with regular arrays, such as **vec[3]**.

A declaration to create a vector looks like this:

```
vector < data-type > vector-name ( size ) ;
```

An **int** vector will, by default have each element automatically initialized with a zero value. Optionally, a different initial value can be specified after the size in the declaration, with this syntax:

```
vector < data-type > vector-name ( size , initial-value ) ;
```

The functions to work with vectors are simply appended to the chosen vector name by the dot operator. For example, to get the size of a vector named “vec” you would use **vec.size()**.

...cont'd

1

Start a new program by specifying the C++ library classes

```
#include <vector>           // Include vector support.
#include <iostream>
using namespace std ;
```



2

Add a main function containing a final **return** statement

```
int main()
{
    // Program code goes here.
    return 0 ;
}
```

3

In the main function, insert a statement to declare and initialize a vector array of three elements of the value 100

```
vector <int> vec( 3, 100 ) ;
```

4

Now, insert statements to manipulate the vector elements

```
cout << "Vector size: " << vec.size() << endl ;
cout << "Is empty?: " << vec.empty() << endl ;
cout << "First element: " << vec.at(0) << endl ;

vec.pop_back() ;           // Remove final element.
cout << "Vector size: " << vec.size() << endl ;
cout << "Final element: " << vec.back() << endl ;

vec.clear() ;             // Remove all elements.
cout << "Vector size: " << vec.size() << endl ;

vec.push_back( 200 ) ;    // Add an element.
cout << "Vector size: " << vec.size() << endl ;
cout << "First element: " << vec.front() << endl ;
```



The example on page 50 shows how to use a loop to populate a vector with different initial values in each element.

5

Save, compile, and run the program to see the output

```
Command Prompt
C:\MyPrograms>c++ vector.cpp -o vector.exe
C:\MyPrograms>vector
Vector size: 3
Is empty?: 0
First element: 100
Vector size: 2
Final element: 100
Vector size: 0
Vector size: 1
First element: 200
C:\MyPrograms>
```

# Declaring constants

Data that will not change during the execution of a program should be stored in a constant container, rather than in a variable. This better enables the compiler to check the code for errors – if the program attempts to change the value stored in a constant, the compiler will report an error and the compilation will fail.

A constant can be created for any data type by prefixing a variable declaration with the **const** keyword, followed by a space. Typically, constant names appear in uppercase to distinguish them from (lowercase) variable names. Unlike variables, constants must always be initialized in the declaration. For example, the declaration of a constant for the math pi value looks like this:

```
const double PI = 3.1415926536 ;
```

The **enum** keyword provides a handy way to create a sequence of integer constants in a concise manner. Optionally, the declaration can include a name for the sequence after the **enum** keyword. The constant names follow as a comma-separated list within braces. For example, this declaration creates a sequence of constants:

```
enum suit { CLUBS , DIAMONDS , HEARTS , SPADES } ;
```

Each of the constants will, by default, have a value one greater than the preceding constant in the list. Unless specified, the first constant will have a value of zero, the next a value of one, and so on. A constant can be assigned any integer value, but the next constant in the list will always increment it by one.

It is occasionally convenient to define a list of enumerated constants as a “custom data type” – by using the **typedef** keyword. This can begin the **enum** declaration, and a chosen type name can be added at the end of the declaration. For example, this **typedef** statement creates a custom data type named “charge”:

```
typedef enum { NEGATIVE , POSITIVE } charge ;
```

Variables can then be created of the custom data type in the usual way, which may legally be assigned any of the listed constants. Essentially, these variables act just like an **int** variable – as they store the numerical integer value the assigned constant represents. For example, with the example above, assigning a **POSITIVE** constant to a **charge** variable actually assigns an integer of one.



The **typedef** keyword simply creates a nickname for a structure.

## ...cont'd

- 1 Start a new program by specifying the C++ library classes to include, and a namespace prefix to use  
`#include <iostream>`  
`using namespace std ;`
- 2 Add a main function containing a final **return** statement  
`int main()`  
`{`  
`// Program code goes here.`  
`return 0 ;`  
`}`
- 3 In the main function, insert statements to declare a constant, and output using the constant value  
`const double PI = 3.1415926536 ;`  
`cout << "6\ circle circumference: " << (PI * 6) << endl ;`
- 4 Next, insert statements to declare an enumerated list of constants, and output using some of those constant values  
`enum`  
`{ RED=1, YELLOW, GREEN, BROWN, BLUE, PINK, BLACK } ;`  
`cout << "I shot a red worth: " << RED << endl ;`  
`cout << "Then a blue worth: " << BLUE << endl ;`  
`cout << "Total scored: " << ( RED + BLUE ) << endl ;`
- 5 Now, insert statements to declare a custom data type and output its assigned values  
`typedef enum { NEGATIVE , POSITIVE } charge ;`  
`charge neutral = NEGATIVE , live = POSITIVE ;`  
`cout << "Neutral wire: " << neutral << endl ;`  
`cout << "Live wire: " << live << endl ;`
- 6 Save, compile, and run the program to see the output



constant.cpp



In the PI declaration, the \* character is the C++ multiplication operator, and the backslash character in \ " escapes the quote mark from recognition – so the string does not get terminated prematurely.

```
Command Prompt
C:\MyPrograms>c++ constant.cpp -o constant.exe
C:\MyPrograms>constant
6" circle circumference: 18.8496
I shot a red worth: 1
Then a blue worth: 5
Total scored: 6
Neutral wire: 0
Live wire: 1
C:\MyPrograms>
```

# Summary

- C++ is an object-oriented programming language that is an extension of the procedural C programming language.
- The GNU C++ Compiler is available for Windows and Linux.
- Preprocessor directives are used to make functions within the standard C++ libraries available to a program.
- Each C++ program must contain one main method as the entry point to the program.
- Statements define the actions that the program will execute.
- It is recommended that program code should be widely commented to make its purpose clear.
- The `c++` command calls the compiler, and its `-o` option allows the command to specify the name of the generated executable.
- A variable declaration specifies a data type and a chosen name by which the value within that variable can be referenced.
- The `cout` function, which is part of the C++ `iostream` library, writes content to the standard output console.
- An array is a fixed size variable that stores multiple items of data in elements, which are numbered starting at zero.
- The special `\0` character can be assigned to the final element of a `char` array to allow it to be treated as a single text string.
- A vector variable stores multiple items of data in elements, and can be dynamically resized.
- The value stored in an array or vector element can be referenced using that variable's name and its index number.
- Variable values that are never changed by the program should be stored in a constant.
- A constant list can be automatically numbered by the `enum` keyword and given a type name by the `typedef` keyword.